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WHY JOHNNY WON'T COOPERATE:
AN EXAMINATION OF BEHAVIOR AND MOTIVATION THEORY
TO UNDERSTAND RESISTANCE TO CHANGE IN THE
WORKPLACE

BY

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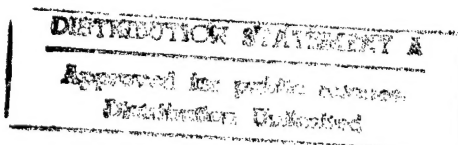
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ABSTRACT

TITLE: Why Johnny Won't Cooperate: An Examination of Behavior and Motivation Theory to Understand Resistance to Change in the Workplace

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Continuous improvement means continuous change, and with change comes resistance. This paper examines the growth of change in the workplace and the resistance which accompanies change. This paper proposes resistance can be characterized and understood by studying motivation, behavior, and resistance theory. Additionally, one can predict and prevent the occurrence of resistance in organizations undergoing change.

This thesis is advanced by synthesizing the motivation theories of Maslow, McGregor, and Herzberg to develop a model which describes behavior as a function of human need and points to the existence of two distinct types of people differentiated by their motivating needs. These needs scope their behavior and help characterize the potential for resistance. This research is augmented by additional study which provides insight regarding those conditions which produce resistance in organizations.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Lieutenant Colonel Kenneth P. Van Sickle became interested in human behavior during undergraduate study at Southern Illinois University (BA, Communication.) This interest continued in the field of organizational behavior while in graduate study (MS, Systems Management, University of Southern California.) During his Air Force career he has served principally in ICBM operations. His missile assignments include Minuteman II crew duty at Malmstrom AFB, Montana and missile staff duty at the Pentagon and Headquarters Strategic Air Command, Omaha, Nebraska. After graduating from the Air Command and Staff College (ACSC), he remained on staff at ACSC and commanded one of the student squadrons prior to attending the Air War College, Class of 1995.

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CONTINUOUS PROCESS IMPROVEMENT AND THE RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Today's military is radically different than the military of only a few years ago. The often heard remark that "this is not your father's Army, Navy, Air Force or Marine Corps" certainly rings truer even today, as it is descriptive of the dramatic and continuous change occurring in the military. To cope with continually changing needs and environments, the services have institutionalized a process to manage and precipitate that change. In the Air Force that process is known Quality Air Force (QAF). It is descriptive of a "commitment and operating style that inspires trust, teamwork and continuous improvement everywhere."¹

The Air Force values QAF as the best method to manage change by engineering a shift in its culture--one which infuses quality in focus and daily operations. ² QAF is, in itself, a fundamental change in thinking and also serves as the very vehicle for precipitating and institutionalizing cultural change. Change requires a departure from one practice and acceptance of a new practice. This transition is singularly critical--if the transition is not successfully made, change will not be institutionalized.

¹MSgt Susan Holmes, The Quality Approach, Air University, Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama, 1994, p. 1.

²Ibid., pp. 2-3.

This paper will focus on the dynamic of change in organizations. More specifically, the resistance to change by individuals in organizations will be evaluated. This is an important topic with significance for anyone who is in the position to manage, direct, or participate in change. This research is singularly important because resistance is the one phenomena which can undermine the successful institution of even the most necessary change. No matter how important a proposed change is to the future of an organization, it will be doomed to fail if implementation is sufficiently resisted.

This research will examine resistance by analyzing people, their motivations, their behaviors, and how change affects them. I propose resistance can be characterized and understood by studying motivation, behavior, and resistance theory. Additionally, one can predict and prevent the occurrence of resistance in organizations undergoing change. I contend there exist two types of people--each sharing distinct needs and motivating forces. The Low-Order Need Person (LONP) and High-Order Need Person (HONP) will be presented as a characterization of that distinction, with the difference being their level of sophistication of their needs or motivating forces. This is a new construct by which one can view motivation and is a synthesis of the motivation theories of Maslow, McGregor and Herzberg. Additionally, by examining case studies and theories regarding behavior and resistance I will use the LONP and HONP construct to show that resistance is a natural human response to two conditions. First, an individual will resist change if that change threatens a valued need. Secondly, an individual will resist change if that change requires them to expend energy on tasks which they perceive as irrelevant to fulfilling a valued need.

This paper will be separated into five areas. After a brief introductory chapter, Chapter II will establish that change has become a common occurrence, and continuous change the standard

for organizations aligned with "Quality Principles." I will also show that change has been historically difficult for individuals and organizations to smoothly negotiate and describe how resistance to change serves as a significant barrier to organizations attempting change. Chapter III will describe some of the more respected motivation, behavior and resistance theories; these will provide the context to understand why people resist change. Chapter IV will serve to assimilate the previous research and place it all in a unique construct that assimilates and relates the dynamics of the theories presented. Finally, Chapter V will distill the previous conclusions and identify some important applications for managing change.

CHAPTER II

CHANGE AND RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Change Has Become Common

Change is a phenomena impacting many of today's organizations as they struggle to maintain relevancy, market share, efficiency, and, in some cases, survival. Change is not a phenomena new for the 1990s. The authors of Management Systems: Conceptual Considerations believe that "the management of complexity will be the central problem of the last third of the 20th century."³ That statement, made almost 15 years ago, is accompanied by their prescription that "new directions of industry, government, universities, hospitals, and other institutions require significant structural changes...."⁴ Herman Kahn reported in 1970 that there is a growing "institutionalization of technological change, especially research, development, innovation, and diffusion...."⁵

Change, however, is not a singular event intended to restore an organization to its proper course; it has become a condition of continuous existence. Dr W. Edwards Deming suggests in point number five of his "Fourteen Points" that management must "Improve constantly and

³Charles G. Schoderbek, Peter P. Schoderbek, and Asterios G. Kefalas, Management Systems Conceptual Considerations, Business Publications, Inc., Dallas, Texas, 1980, p. 327.

⁴Ibid., p. 329.

⁵Ibid., p. 326.

forever the system of production and service."⁶ In her book The Deming Management Method, Mary Walton adds, "Improvement is not a one-time effort. Management is obligated to improve continually."⁷ This idea that continuous change is necessary to maintain a company's competitiveness has become the vogue in corporate strategy.

Change dominates corporate competitiveness theory today. The well known author Tom Peters suggests that change is the prescription for organizational success. In Peters' book Thriving on Chaos he suggests " 'If it ain't broke, you just haven't looked hard enough.' Fix it anyway."⁸ Note his attachment to change in his following thoughts:

Change must become the norm, not cause for alarm. The bottom line: If you can't point to something specific that's being done differently from the way it was done when you came to work this morning, you have not 'lived,' for all intents and purposes; you surely have not earned your paycheck by any stretch of the imagination.⁹

The occurrence of change is increasing in breadth and scope throughout business and the military and is being nurtured via the principles of Total Quality Management (TQM.) As an example of the recognition which TQM has earned for managing change, US President Bill Clinton has said of the founder of TQM: "The ideas of W. Edwards Deming have become a powerfully effective force for change in American industry."¹⁰ As early as 1992 almost one-half of American companies were developing quality programs and 43 percent of those companies had

⁶Mary Walton, The Deming Management Method, Perigee Books, The Putnam Publishing Group, New York, New York, 1986, p. 35.

⁷op. cit., Mary Walton, p. 66.

⁸Tom Peters, Thriving on Chaos: Handbook for a Management Revolution, Harper & Row, New York, 1988, p.3.

⁹Ibid., p. 560.

¹⁰David K. Carr and Ian D. Littman, Excellence in Government: Total Quality Management in the 1990s, Second Edition, Coopers & Lybrand, Arlington, Virginia, 1993, p.2.

been practicing quality principles for five or more years.¹¹ Also in 1992, the GAO reported that 68 percent of 2,800 Federal organizations surveyed responded they had begun introducing TQM.¹²

The Federal Total Quality Management Handbook describes the Total Quality Management process as one which "involves all managers and employees and uses quantitative methods to improve continuously an organization's processes."¹³ This handbook describes the second of the three TQM principles as seeking "*continuous and long-term improvement* in all of the organization's processes and outputs."¹⁴ The Air Force, under the moniker of Quality Air Force (QAF), also has embraced the concept of "achieving continuous, measurable improvement in the workplace" by institutionalizing a continuous improvement process.¹⁵ Even with this strong commitment change is not necessarily easy to effect.

Change Has Been Difficult to Negotiate

No matter how valiant, noble, or necessary change is for an organization, it creates psychological unrest for those affected by the change. Regarding change, the noted American economist John Kenneth Galbraith said, "Faced with the choice between changing one's mind and

¹¹Rodger J. Howe, Del Gaeddert, and Maynard A. Howe, Quality on Trial, West Publishing Co., St. Paul, Minnesota, 1992, p. 4.

¹²Ibid., pp. 323, 329.

¹³US Government, Federal Total Quality Management Handbook, United States Office of Personnel Management, Federal Quality Institute, 1991, p. iii.

¹⁴Ibid., p.3.

¹⁵Msgr Susan Holmes, ed., Process Improvement Guide, Air University, Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama, 1994, p. 1.

proving that there is no need to do so, almost everybody gets busy on the proof." ¹⁶ The psychologists Rogers and Maslow suggest this reaction is symptomatic of an individual's need for "achieving self-fulfillment, including a strong positive regard for himself."¹⁷ This same theme is central in the following statement by the renowned Russian author Leo Tolstoy:

I know that most men, including those at ease with problems of the greatest complexity, can seldom accept even the simplest and most obvious truth if it be such as would oblige them to admit the falsity of conclusions which they have delighted in explaining to colleagues, which they have proudly taught to others, and which they have woven, thread by thread, into the fabric of their lives.¹⁸

Recognizing or validating the need for change remains difficult for many reasons. It requires more than admitting an attachment to the less meritorious of two options. As Tolstoy explains, it may be the embarrassment of detaching oneself from a position now claimed false or as the English historian Henry Thomas Buckle describes, it is the unrest of leaving the "old and cherished associations of thought." ¹⁹

The futurist Marilyn Ferguson describes the fear of change in much more basic terms when saying, "It's not so much that we're afraid of change or so in love with the old ways, but it's that place in between that we fear.... It's like being between trapezes. It's Linus when his blanket is in the dryer. There's nothing to hold on to."²⁰ The fact remains that whether it is the departure from previously held beliefs, the transition from the old condition as described by Ferguson as being "between trapezes," or the attachment to cherished associations, change creates a profound

¹⁶William Bridges, Managing Transitions: Making the Most of Change, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, Massachusetts, 1991, p. ix.

¹⁷Frank T. Severin, Discovering Man in Psychology: A Humanistic Approach, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, et. al., 1973, p. 109.

¹⁸op. cit., William Bridges, p. 23.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 5.

²⁰Ibid., p. 34.

psychological dynamic. The French writer Anatole France adds, "All changes, even the most longed for, have their melancholy; for what we leave behind is part of ourselves; we must die to one life before we can enter into another."²¹ Whatever dynamic is occurring, there is certainly much agreement that change is difficult. That organizations understand the difficulty of accepting change is made manifest by the observable and consequential resistance to change.

Resistance is a Significant Barrier for Achieving Change

Knowing that change is inevitable, will remain a constant for the future, and is difficult for people to accept, it is important to examine one of the most significant barriers to implementing change in an organization--that barrier is the resistance to change. In the book Quality on Trial the authors describe the experience often encountered when presenting quality principles to an organization; they say, "When the executive preaches quality, he or she is facing one tough crowd."²² The crowd is said to be tough because of the emotional, behavioral, and vocal response to proposed change. Often, that response is resistance, and resistance can derail successful implementation of any proposed change.

In the previously referenced 1992 survey, the GAO identified the top ten barriers encountered when implementing TQM. The two barriers most common were employee resistance to change and difficulty in acquiring the necessary funds to support a TQM program.²³ Similarly, within the Department of Defense, the authors Rumsey and Miller found "most failures of total quality control can be attributed to the resistance of upper level management, middle management

²¹op. cit., William Bridges, p. 20.

²²op. cit., Rodger J. Howe, Del Gaeddert, and Maynard A. Howe, p. 29.

²³op. cit., David K. Carr and Ian D. Littman, p. 338.

and the line workers--probably in that order."²⁴ These authors corroborated the GAO survey, finding the top three barriers to institutionalizing quality principles as: lack of worker motivation, opposition of existing management, and acceptance of status quo/resistance to change.²⁵ Although Rumsey and Miller list these top three barriers as apparently separate phenomena, all three are descriptive of a resistance to change. Karen Lam's article "The Future of Total Quality Management (TQM)" provides additional support by concluding many organizations are finding the same difficulties implementing TQM. She also acknowledged the tremendous inhibiting influence that resistance to change has in organizations transforming to TQM.²⁶

The body of work presented thus far would indicate that embracing change is not merely a simple decision made outside the context of tremendous emotional attachment to the condition one is leaving behind. There have been many studies regarding the dynamic of human behavior and motivation which when examined will provide tremendous insight for understanding resistance to change.

²⁴Hal A. Rumsey and Phillip E. Miller, "Barriers to Total Quality Management in the Department of Defense," in Air War College, Department of National Security Studies Readings: Leadership for the 90's and Beyond: A Quality Approach-NS 621, Academic Year 1995, Air University, Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama, 1994, p. 31.

²⁵Ibid., p. 32.

²⁶Ibid., pp. 10, 12-13.

CHAPTER III

MOTIVATION, BEHAVIOR & RESISTANCE THEORIES

MOTIVATION THEORIES

McGregor's Theory X, Theory Y Reference

Resistance to change and lack of employee motivation are the common denominators in the testimony of the previously referenced experts who have described barriers to implementing change. In a very real sense those authors say people are the problem; they lack motivation, are resistant to change, or lack a drive for excellence. Characterization of people in this context coincides with the Theory X attitude of human motivation. Douglas McGregor advanced this characterization of two extremes of motivation theory. One extreme was the belief by managers that workers disliked work; they had to be coerced or threatened to produce; and they lacked responsibility and ambition. This attitude was labeled as Theory X. In contrast, Theory Y managers saw workers as motivated, self-starters, committed, open to responsibility, etc.²⁷ The following figure displays the assumptions attributed to the Theory X and Theory Y characterization.

²⁷Andrew D. Szilagyi, Jr., and Marc J. Wallace, Jr., Organizational Behavior and Performance, Second Edition, Goodyear Publishing Company, Inc., Santa Monica, California, 1980, pp. 104-105.

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y Characterization	Theory X Assumptions	Theory Y Assumptions
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ People dislike work and will avoid it if possible. ♦ People must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment. ♦ People will avoid responsibility, have little ambition and want security above all else. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ People will exercise self-direction and self-control to achieve objectives to which they are committed. ♦ Commitment to objectives is a function of recognition associated with their achievements. ♦ People will seek responsibility. ♦ People will exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity to solve organizational problems.

Figure 1

Yet, interestingly enough, many who advocate TQM in the workplace suggest the very people necessary for TQM's successful integration are the same people who act in ways which serve as barriers to TQM implementation.²⁸ Carr and Littman state, "TQM is based on Theory Y management, which assumes that all people have a natural drive for accomplishment."²⁹ To validate this point, Carr and Littman report their studies agree with McGregor's Theory Y conclusion; that is, people are motivated, self-starters and fundamentally responsible. In fact, the Theory Y reference has become dominant over time, and the military services have accepted this reference as valid, as evidenced in their leadership and management training. (My point here is not to prove the relative merit of Theory X or Theory Y reference, but only to point out that the attachment with the Theory Y reference is dominant.) Yet, understanding and accepting the Theory Y reference doesn't explain the resistance observed in organizations undergoing change.

²⁸op. cit., Karen D. Lam, p. 10. Also see similar sentiments in Hal A. Rumsey and Phillip E. Miller, pp. 31-32 and David K. Carr and Ian D. Littman, p.338.

²⁹op. cit., David K. Carr and Ian D. Littman, p.19.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

A further study of motivation theory provides important insight to understanding resistance. A motivation theory proposed by Frederick Herzberg links the relationship of motivation and satisfaction. Herzberg identified a two-factor theory regarding the motivation of employees. His motivation-hygiene theory concluded there were two types of factors in the work environment. One is satisfiers (or motivators)--these are factors which, when present, tend to create satisfaction or motivation in the minds of employees. Those satisfying or motivating factors are achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and personal growth and development. Absence of these factors does not lead to dissatisfaction; however, absence does seem to diminish an environment which serves to motivate. The second type of factors includes those which can dissatisfy individuals--these hygiene factors are job security, salary, working conditions, status, company policies, quality of technical supervision, quality of interpersonal relations among peers, supervisors and subordinates, and fringe benefits. According to Herzberg these factors can create dissatisfied employees if they are absent or are perceived as inadequate in scope; yet, when present and appropriate these factors do not add to satisfaction or serve to motivate employees to action.³⁰ The following figure summarizes the two-factor attributes.

³⁰op. cit., Andrew D. Szilagyi, Jr., and Marc J. Wallace, Jr., pp. 110-111. Similar discussion made by S. E. Stephanou, Management: Technology, Innovation and Engineering, Daniel Spencer Publishers, Malibu, California, 1980, pp.272-273.

	Motivation or Satisfaction Factors*	Hygiene or Dissatisfying Factors*
<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; width: fit-content;"> Herzberg's Motivation Hygiene Theory </div>	Sense of achievement Form of recognition Qualitative value of the work Level of responsibility Opportunity for advancement Personal growth development	Job security Salary Working conditions Status Perception of company policy Quality of technical supervision Quality of interpersonal relations Fringe benefits
	*If factors present then employee is satisfied; if factors absent then employee is not dissatisfied but will lack motivation.	*If factors are present then employees are not dissatisfied; if not present then employee is dissatisfied.

Figure 2

Organizational behavior researchers Szilagyi and Wallace agree with Herzberg's conclusion that, "only such aspects as a challenging job, recognition for doing a good job, and opportunities for advancement, personal growth, and development function to provide a situation for motivated behavior."³¹ This begins to clarify why some individuals lack motivation and are resistant to change. Accordingly, if change is perceived as denying or placing at risk any of these satisfying or motivating factors, individuals may lack the necessary motivation to support change and thereby respond with resistance. An example illustrating this point might be the case where the CEO of an organization announces a new company policy that all middle and senior management positions will be open only to marketing personnel. In this instance, it seems intuitive that personnel from operations, sales, etc., would experience a tremendous drop in motivation. With no hope for many to ever achieve a need they value, such as advancement, their motivation to accept change could be dramatically affected. In fact, resistance to change would be a common response.

³¹op. cit., Andrew D. Szilagyi, Jr., and Marc J. Wallace, Jr., p. 111.

Maslow's Need Hierarchy

Maslow suggested people are motivated by a set of internal needs. These needs range from the lowest-order needs of Physiological to the highest-order need of Self-actualization. They are also hierarchical, as one must sufficiently satisfy a lower-order need before advancing to the next higher need. In practice, Maslow suggests a person is

Maslow s Need Hierarchy

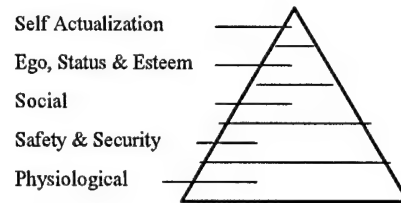


Figure 3

motivated to meet the Physiological needs, such as food, water, shelter, working conditions, salary, et. al., prior to being motivated to the Safety and Security level. At that level an individual is concerned with safety, security, stability, competence, fringe benefits, job security, et. al. Once those needs are satisfied, a person will seek companionship, affection, friendship, compatible work groups, et al., at the Social need level. Beyond that level, a person will pursue recognition, status, self-respect, responsibility, prestige, et. al., at the Ego, Status and Esteem level. The final level is Self Actualization which motivates a person to seek growth, achievement, advancement, creativity, and challenge. Maslow postulates that a satisfied need is no longer a motivator; and, once a lower-order need is satisfied, the next higher-order need becomes the individual's motivational drive.³²

³²W. Clay Hamner and Dennis W. Organ, *Organizational Behavior: An Applied Psychological Approach*, Business Publications, Inc., Dallas, Texas, 1978, pp. 137-139, and op. cit., Andrew D. Szilagyi, Jr., and Marc J. Wallace, Jr., pp. 105-107.

Motivation theory adds an important perspective regarding the circumstances which drive people to action. This, by itself, still isn't sufficient to understand the complexity of human behavior. Behavior theory adds additional insight from a different perspective.

BEHAVIOR THEORIES

Organizational behavior is a field of study which examines the behavior, attitudes, and performance of people in organizations. This study focuses on the relationships between "the organization's and informal group's effect on the worker's perceptions, feelings, and actions; the environment's effect on the organization and its human resources and goals; and the effect of the workers on the organization and its effectiveness."³³ Fundamentally, organizational behavior theory attempts to define what causes behavior, why a particular phenomena causes behavior, and which phenomena can the manager control directly and which are beyond their control.³⁴ The function of this next section will be to look at some of the behavior theory and understand what may be contributing to resistance to change.

Festinger's Cognitive Dissonance Theory

In 1957, the psychologist Leon Festinger proposed a theory wherein he suggested that people will attempt to achieve a level of cognitive equilibrium between their attitudes and their behaviors. His Cognitive Dissonance Theory proposes that people usually operate with a consistency between attitudes and behaviors; thus, they experience no dissonance. Dissonance is encountered when there is inconsistency between attitudes and behavior. Unless there are

³³op. cit., Andrew D. Szilagyi, Jr., and Marc J. Wallace, Jr., pp. 2-3.

³⁴op. cit., W. Clay Hamner and Dennis W. Organ, p. 5.

significant factors which can serve to internally justify the inconsistency, and therefore reduce the dissonance, a person will change his attitude or behavior to return to a level of consistency. For example: if a person smokes cigarettes and is led to believe that smoking is hazardous to one's health, there exists dissonance between their attitude or cognition (they believe smoking to be hazardous to their health) and their behavior (they smoke.) That dissonance can be reduced by one of three methods. One, they can deny the cognition--tell themselves that smoking isn't sufficiently hazardous, or their smoking will not likely lead to significant harm. Two, they can augment their cognition with a higher order cognition--smoking is the only method that allows them to cope with the stress they encounter in their job, marriage, life, etc.; therefore, it serves a necessary purpose and must be continued. Three, they can change their behavior--stop or reduce their smoking to what they believe is a behavior which then achieves consistency with their attitude regarding the hazards of smoking.³⁵

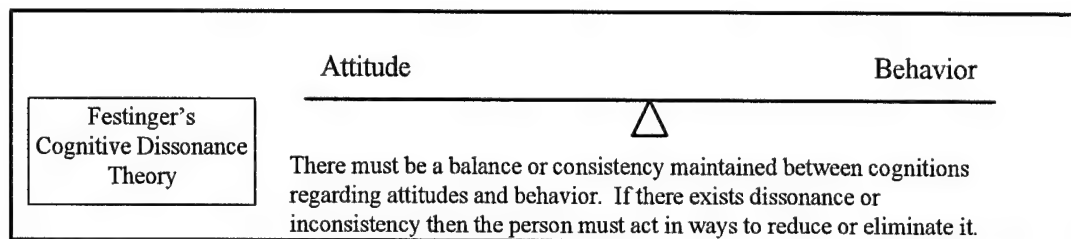


Figure 4

This same psychological dynamic may be occurring when change is being introduced in an organization. That is, most employee's cognition's are such that they believe they are performing their jobs well.³⁶ If an employee is given a requirement to change his work behavior, then that

³⁵Ibid., p. 115.

³⁶L. O. Ruch and T. H. Holmes, "Scaling of Life Change: Comparison of Direct and Indirect Methods," Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 1971, Vol. 15, pp. 224, found in W. Clay

individual, in a real sense, is being presented with a competing cognition which tells that worker that their task behavior is no longer sufficient to some degree. Certainly, you could provide exceptional scenarios which wouldn't present a dissonant cognition; for example, if a worker is presented a requirement to change their behavior as a reward function, then there could easily be no competing cognition serving as a challenge to their own positive self-image.

One could readily suggest that telling a worker not to come to work the next day as thanks for their recent hard work would not normally result in a cognitively dissonant situation, but it could. The employee's cognition that he doing a good job is augmented by a second cognition requiring a change to normal behavior--the second cognition is a change request for the worker to not come to work on the following day. The perceived, implied, or expressed reason for that change request becomes the most important variable for the worker to determine if the change request presents dissonance. Naturally, when the expressed reason is described as a reward for good behavior then that would match with the positive self-image of the employee. No dissonance would exist and no resistance to the change request would exist.

However, if the worker's self-image of his job performance were appropriately negative for whatever reasons, and he was being rewarded with a day off, he would experience cognitive dissonance and would have to find ways to reduce or resolve it. An emotional response to this condition might be that the worker experiences feelings of guilt. Guilt is one prompting function to deal with cognitive dissonance. The dissonance of these two competing cognition's might result in resistance to the change request. The worker who feels guilty about their own work behavior may resist accepting the day off to lessen the dissonance. You see, the employee must

Hamner and Dennis W. Organ, Organizational Behavior: An Applied Psychological Approach, Business Publications, Inc., Dallas, Texas, 1978, p. 119.

come to terms, by whatever method, with the dissonance from knowing he is performing below standard as compared with the cognition of the expected standards of the company. Previously, he might have easily justified his behavior (and achieved cognitive consistency) by believing that he provided the appropriate level of performance for the pay he received or the conditions he endured. The employee, presented with this new award function, must now readdress the dissonance created when the added factor upset the previous balance. Again, guilt can serve as a forcing function.

At this point one can draw on their own experience here to recall situations where an individual whose guilt has continued to grow as the dissonance widened until action became imperative. That person could be described as having been overcome with guilt. The response could be resistance to the change request, acknowledgment of the truth, correcting their behavior to bring it in line with the dissonant cognition, or failing to find a suitable alternative resort to abnormal behavior. It is this same frame of mind which has driven people to very destructive and violent behavior.

Not to belabor the discussion of this scenario, there remain other considerations important for analysis. If the worker was told not to come to work the following day without an expressed or implied explanation, then dissonance could still exist. If the worker's cognition of his job performance was positive but didn't understand why he was directed not to come in to work the next day, he would certainly attempt to establish the reason for the proposed change. Not knowing if the proposed change was for punishment, reward, or other reason, the worker finds this information critical to return to cognitive consistency. Even when the reason becomes known, the worker may still experience dissonance if the reason isn't consistent with his self-image. Again, options to respond to dissonance may include resistance.

It remains necessary for the individual to find a balance between the reason for the action and the balance between his own attitude and behavior. What remains key from the worker's perspective is his perception of the action. His perception is his reality, and it must be consistent with his own balance of attitude and behavior.

Self-esteem Theory

Another theory which examines the relationship of attitude and behavior is labeled generically as self-esteem theory and has been studied by many researchers.

Resistance to change can be viewed as an individual's natural response to maintain cognitive equilibrium between their attitude (high self-image) and behavior (method they perform their job.) Severin adds, "in response to real or imagined threats, [a person] may restrict his perceptions in an attempt to screen out everything that runs contrary to his feelings of self-worth."³⁷ Any attempt to direct changes in the performance behavior of an individual may be easily perceived as a message declaring their performance doesn't match expectations; therefore, agreement with a proposed change may be tantamount to agreeing that one's own behavior is deficient. This phenomena was discovered in the now famous Western Electric Hawthorne study which was designed to examine the efficiency of the plant's workers. The researchers, Roethlisberger and Dickson, unwittingly found when their actions served to build up the self-esteem of the workers, the workers were much more amenable to change.³⁸ To further expand understanding of the relative importance of self-esteem, Festinger reported people are quite willing to operate with dissonant attitudes and behaviors when their self-esteem has been

³⁷op. cit., Frank T. Severin, p. 109.

³⁸op. cit., Andrew D. Szilagyi, Jr., and Marc J. Wallace, Jr., p.533.

threatened or damaged; that is, people are willing to do things they know are wrong or do not match their attitudes when their self-esteem has been damaged.³⁹ A recent example of just such an incident occurred when an individual was interviewed on "The Jenny Jones" television show. A young adult male was brought on the show under the pretext of meeting a woman who had secret desires for him. In reality the show introduced a male acquaintance of the guest who held a homosexual attraction for him. The defrauded guest was so overcome with embarrassment that he sought out the gay acquaintance and killed him soon after taping of the show. These findings have dramatic insight to the nature of resistance.

Most people have in some way come to terms with their own self-image. That self-image includes many things but is also served by their own perceptions of their value and capability in the work environment. Certainly, there exists variations in the performance capabilities of individuals in the work place. Some workers are viewed as much more capable than others; yet, in some way, each individual in the work place sees himself as contributing some worthy function to the task. Hamner and Organ state, "People expend a great deal of their energy learning to live with themselves. Many of our attitudes have the function of defending our self-image."⁴⁰ This suggests people in organizations usually view their own worth to the organization as high, and any inputs which could damage that view, and therefore create dissonance, are internally manipulated so to return to a positive self-image (effectively reducing dissonance and returning to attitude/behavior equilibrium.)

³⁹Elliot Aronson, "The Rationalizing Animal," in The Applied Psychology of Work Behavior: A Book of Readings, edited by Dennis W. Organ, Business Publications, Inc., Dallas, Texas, 1978, pp. 50-51.

⁴⁰op. cit., L. O. Ruch and T. H. Holmes, p. 119.

Szilaygi and Wallace agree that self-esteem is very important to the change process. They provide, "The abandonment of previous patterns of behavior is easier when an individual has an increased awareness and sense of personal worth."⁴¹ This would suggest that by increasing a person's self-image management can positively affect a person's propensity to approve change.

A couple of examples here may be valuable. Situation--An energetic young man just finished a class on workplace efficiency and in his zeal came home and announced to his wife that he would totally rearrange her kitchen to produce an environment which would allow her to perform at dramatically improved performance levels. What do you believe would be her response? What if he proposed a similar change to his secretary's work station? In both cases, his wife's and secretary's perception of their capability and performance are woven into the fabric of their self-image (recall Tolstoy's comment.) Since they value their performance as high, any proposal introduced which would demand change in their performance may be perceived as damaging their self-esteem (or according to a Porter and Lawler study--their satisfaction).⁴² Their common and expected response most likely would be resistance to the proposed change. It seems the nature of the change is important to understanding the occurrence of resistance.

⁴¹op. cit., Andrew D. Szilaygi, Jr., and Marc J. Wallace, Jr., p. 533.

⁴²Charles N. Greene, "The Satisfaction-Performance Controversy," appearing in Andrew D. Szilaygi, Jr., and Marc J. Wallace, Jr., eds., Readings in Organizational Behavior and Performance, Second Edition, Goodyear Publishing Company, Inc., Santa Monica, California, 1980, pp. 63-64.

Self-esteem Theory	
<u>Researcher(s)</u>	<u>Conclusion</u>
Severin	Perceptions are screened to preserve self-image (17:109)
Roethlisberger and Dickson	An increase in self-esteem enhances change implementation (6:533)
Festinger	Damage to self-esteem increases resistance to change (5:50-51)
Hamner and Organ	Attitudes are modified to defend self-esteem (3:119)
Szilagyi and Wallace	An increase in self-esteem enhances change implementation (6:533)

Figure 5

Workplace Change -- A Significant Stressor

There have been many studies which document the stress of significant life events. Ruch and Holmes report in their article, "Scaling of Life Change: Comparison of Direct and Indirect Methods," events which create change in an individual's life may have dramatic consequence proportional to the nature of change. Apart from what change may do to self-image or esteem, change by itself has been shown to be a stressing event. As one might expect, the death of a spouse and divorce are the two life changes posing the greatest consequence. Of interest here, are Ruch's and Holmes' finding that responsibility change at the workplace poses a significant stressor for an individual as well. Their research rates workplace change as more stressing than a son or daughter leaving home and just below having a mortgage or loan foreclosed by a bank.⁴³ It follows then, that resistance to change in the workplace serves as a personal defense mechanism to eliminate or reduce the induced stress brought about as a result of the proposed change. Therefore, by placing barriers in the path of the proposed change one attempts to deny the opportunity for the stress-inducing event to occur, or somehow serve as a method to reduce the dissonance.

⁴³op. cit., L. O. Ruch and T. H. Holmes, p. 208.

Brown, Siegel, and Green Satisfaction Theory

Another theory which adds insight to worker motivation is in the area of performance and job satisfaction. In the early days of organizational behavior and motivation study, workers who were satisfied in the work environment were believed to be those who performed best. In the early 1970s when performance studies gained great attention, researchers Bowen , Siegel, and Green reported strong correlation which indicated the reverse had greater merit. They found that people whose performance was viewed by the organization as strong would receive rewards, and that performance/reward function led to the degree of satisfaction in their work.⁴⁴

Conclusions from these findings will be addressed in a later section of this paper but, for now I would only say there appears to be a strong cognitive relationship between the satisfaction and self-esteem theories.

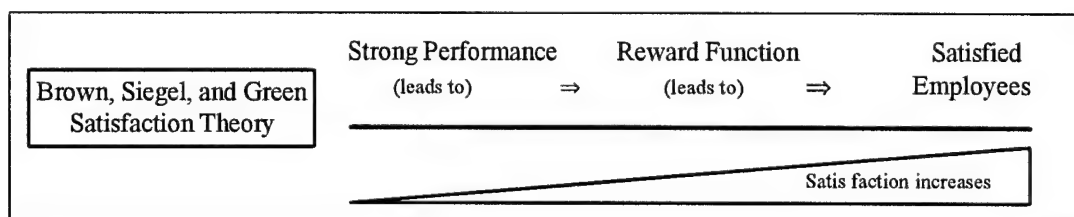


Figure 6

⁴⁴op. cit., Charles N. Greene, pp. 62-63. Much of their work was based on the important research of Lawler and Porter work as described by: L. O. Ruch and T. H. Holmes, pp. 321-322.

Bridge's Transitional Theory

A final theory explaining resistance in organizations undergoing change is provided by William Bridges in his book Managing Transitions: Making the Most of Change. His thoughts are comprehensive regarding the reason difficulty exists when introducing change to organizations.

In a general sense, Bridges describes change as management's necessary function to review existing processes; determine the need for a new method or process; identify the new method or process; communicate to the employees the new method or process; and assist the employees as they work through the tension, resistance, and anxiety of implementing the prescribed change.

Specifically, Bridges suggests that it isn't change which is the most difficult phenomena in an organization, for change is only situational. Change is descriptive of the new condition: the new policy, new boss, new location, etc. Bridges believes the transition to the change is the most difficult event for an organization. Transition is the critical process required to reach the proposed change state.⁴⁵

The transition from the old situation to the new situation is where the resistance occurs. This transition to the new is consequential in practice. The French poet Paul Valery said, "Every beginning is a consequence. Every beginning ends something."⁴⁶ Bridges believes this statement to be profound and serves as the core of his concept. This notion which Valery describes, and upon which Bridges expands, is key to understanding the difficulty of approaching change in any organization. That difficulty, embodied in resistance, is the natural result of asking the members of any organization to put to rest something they had previously accepted and now accept

⁴⁵Op. cit., William Bridges, p. 3.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 51.

something different. Therefore, great attention must be given to the transition necessary to arrive at the new end state. The transition process does not begin with training and implementing the new change as one might believe.

The starting point for transition is not the outcome but the ending that you will have to make to leave the old situation behind. Situational change hinges on the new thing, but psychological transition depends on letting go of the old reality and the old identity you had before the change took place.⁴⁷

If one draws on their own experience where change has occurred, then this gains relevance. For example, if you moved to a new location as a child, or even as an adult, the process of change transition did not begin with emotionally attaching yourself to the new location. The very meaningful process was the transition from the old situation, where you had to end friendships and become psychologically ready to move from the old to the new.

A similar process had to occur in a work setting when one changed from an old task behavior to a new one. An excellent example occurred throughout many organizations as they transitioned from typewriters to word processors and computers. The resistance was not the intentional denial of the new equipment's functional value, but was the psychological difficulty of departing from the old, the comfortable, and the familiar. It was quite common during the period of transition, when a significant stressor occurred which demanded quick or significant task response, employees would revert to old habits, equipment, relationships, or surroundings as coping behavior. This underscores the difficulty of completing that transition from the old to the new condition. And, of no less consequence, it highlights the imperative for those in an organization to respond to the need for those affected by change to engender psychological closure with the old condition.

⁴⁷Ibid.

After the letting go of the old condition, there comes what is described as the neutral zone. As Bridges says, "This is the no-man's-land between the old reality and the new. It's the limbo between the old sense of identity and the new. It is a time when the old way is gone and the new doesn't feel comfortable yet."⁴⁸ When the move was made to the new location or the new task was begun, the physical change may have occurred somewhat quickly; yet, the psychological transition occurred much more slowly. There exists a real struggle for a time between the old and the new. This is the most critical phase of the transition process. This is the phase where old habits, methods, and attachments to the old are extinguished and the patterns embracing the new are formed and reinforced. This is where most organizations jeopardize their successful transition to the new.⁴⁹

So successful change requires an ending, neutral zone, and a new beginning. The new beginning can be reached only if people have successfully let go of the old and spent sufficient time in the neutral zone to shed the past and attach to the new future.

⁴⁸Ibid., p. 5.

⁴⁹Ibid., p. 6.

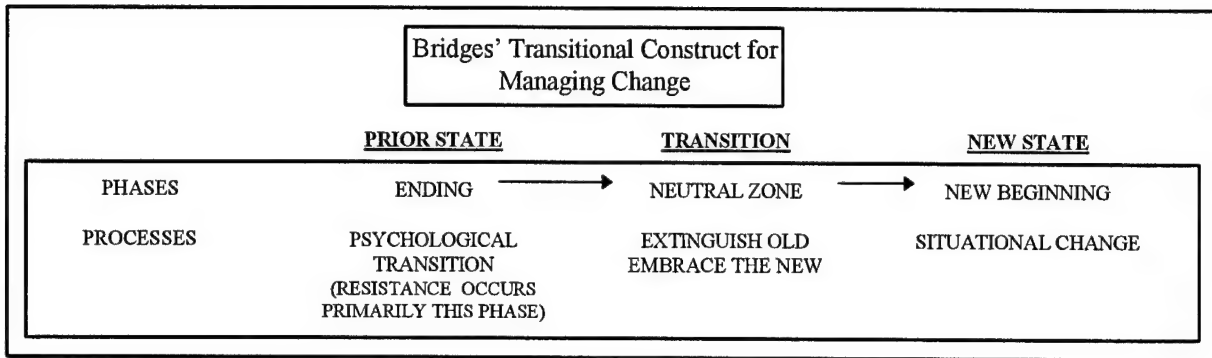


Figure 7

Examining Bridges' thoughts regarding change, one begins to see the dilemma he describes is the difficulty of making the transition from the old state to the new with the least resistance. And as Bridges' says, it isn't the change that people resist, but rather the letting go of the old. The psychological dynamic he describes requires a period of orientation but the occurrence of resistance may not necessarily be a condition for change to occur.

RESISTANCE THEORIES

This next section describes theories which provide insight regarding the study of resistance; this examination will highlight what serves to reduce resistance and what serves to precipitate resistance.

Carr & Littman's Resistance Theory

In their book, Excellence in Government: Total Quality Management in the 1990s, the authors Carr and Littman suggest that resistance to change is an individual's natural response to maintain the status quo they believe is being threatened. However, resistance is not a necessary condition in the change process. They believe, "If you involve people in shaping and introducing

a change they are more likely to adopt it."⁵⁰ This is the same concept of building 'ownership' as was discussed earlier. The researchers add you must first be sincere regarding the involvement of your people. Second, it is the management's responsibility to ensure the workers have the ability and freedom to be involved in meaningful ways. Carr and Littman suggest these two principles are absolutely necessary for reducing resistance to change in organizations. They believe there are three reasons for resistance to change: fear, resentment, and technical merit.⁵¹

Fear is the real or imagined consequence of the perceived change. Carr and Littman make an important point for consideration here. They say, "People do not accept or resist an innovation. Instead, they accept or resist the way it changes their lives."⁵² One might conclude that the reverse also has merit; that is, people will pay little attention, and thus, not resist changes or innovations which don't affect their status quo. If the proposed change is perceived as yielding only a positive consequence (extremely rare), then the appropriate management approach to implementing this kind of change is by education and demonstration for employees.

Resentment is the response to change imposed from without. People have a definite distaste for change to which they are being ordered to comply. The authors explain resistance to job improvement programs as follows:

Employees have a long history for being ordered to do things which haven't worked and the proposed change may be yet another dumb management directive which lacked sufficient thought and coordination. (It is interesting to note the authors chose to relate this dynamic to implementation of quality into an organization.)

⁵⁰op. cit., David K. Carr and Ian D. Littman, p. 167.

⁵¹Ibid., p. 167-169.

⁵²Ibid., p. 168.

Many times the employee became energized and committed to the proposed change only to later find long-term management commitment didn't exist. Historically, management produced improvement programs for the "eye wash" value and often lacked management commitment for the long haul; therefore, many of the employees were reasonably gun shy to sign up to another program which may not have longevity.

The people who bear the brunt of effecting improvement programs are the middle managers who are already overtasked.

Technical merit is the perceived value of the proposed change, judged by the people who have a vested interest. Those affected will weigh the status quo against what they perceive will be the new end state and decide if the new state is a worthy effort. Carr and Littman add that researchers Coopers & Lybrand found in their studies there are a couple types of resistance regarding the technical merit of the change. Objections are made regarding the technical capability of the proposed change to fill the requirement. Secondly, objections are in many cases focused on the social consequence of the proposed change. A common complaint is made by those resisting change when they suggest the proposed change may work in some cases but it 'won't work here.' This is the common complaint when implementing TQM.⁵³

Although the reasons for resisting change just stated by Carr and Littman are expressions of the presence of resistance, there are, as they agree techniques to eliminate or reduce resistance.

Szilagyi & Wallace's Resistance Theory

Szilagyi and Wallace studied organizational behavior and concluded that worker's needs which lack fulfillment or remain unsatisfied over a long term result in that individual experiencing

frustration, conflict, and stress. The way people respond to those feelings are quite often expressed in four defensive behaviors.⁵⁴

Aggression--this is a defensive behavior usually directed to a person, thing, or organization. This can be found in the behavior by an individual to subordinates, co-workers, and supervisors. Aggression may also take the form of sabotage, stealing, non-compliance, etc.

Rationalization--this is a defensive behavior as well. An individual may display this characteristic by attributing his behavior, or responses to his behavior, to influences not in this control.

Compensation--a person may focus an inordinate amount of his attention in one area to compensate for unfulfilled needs in other areas. An example would be when an individual whose social needs aren't being met at work might spend an inordinate amount of time and energy working on company social or civic activities.

Regression--this is a defense mechanism which results in pronounced behavior alteration. A person who was previously open and friendly may become very closed and focused.

Szilagy and Wallace conclude the best method to understand these behaviors is by understanding the need theories of Maslow, Herzberg, et. al. They agree with Carr & Littman regarding involving people in the change process by suggesting "participation may improve an employee's understanding of the need for change, and this can result in a minimization of resistance."⁵⁵

⁵³Ibid., p. 170.

⁵⁴op. cit., Andrew D. Szilagy, Jr., and Marc J. Wallace, Jr., pp. 108-109.

⁵⁵Ibid., p. 543.

Without expanding on all the forms by which resistance can be expressed, the imperative here is what demands attention. That imperative is employee participation in the change process reduces resistance.

Coch and French's Resistance Theory

In a study conducted by Coch and French, they evaluated four different groups of factory workers which were introduced to change. The first group was granted no participation in the change process; the second group was allowed a representative to serve their interests in the change process; the third and fourth group participated wholly in the change discussion by meeting with company representatives, hearing the reasons for change, and reached agreement on the change to be implemented. All groups were then trained on the new method. The no-participation group's output fell immediately after the change was implemented to two-thirds of its prior level. This lasted for thirty days; some resigned, while others exhibited anger toward management. Yet, on the full-participation team there was an initial, minor drop in production but a quick recovery to levels higher than previous, with no resignations or hostility.⁵⁶ The Coch and French findings are equally supportive of the studies presented previously. Certainly, the importance of participation in change is conclusive.

Lawrence and Lorsch's Resistance Theory

A final factor which may explain reasons for resistance is from a Lawrence and Lorsch study. They conclude there exists some relationship relative to the importance of behavioral

⁵⁶Ibid., p. 544.

change, as a function of the cognitive versus emotional content of the required change.⁵⁷ The interest here is one which becomes quickly intuitive. Change which has little emotional attachment is more cognitive on the scale and, thus, is of little significance. An example of cognitive change may be requiring the widgets coming off the production line be painted red instead of green. This has cognitive significance but not much emotional significance. Only if the change carries great emotional significance will the behavioral change assume importance, and with that comes greater occurrence of resistance. If the change requires one to increase the quality of the painted product, then the change gains emotional significance because it is a statement regarding one's technique and performance. Even cognitive changes, if sufficient in number, gain importance if they require wholesale changes to meet the behavior demanded.

The findings of the Lawrence and Lorsch study serve to underscore that which was concluded earlier regarding self-esteem. That is, if the change damages one's self-image or esteem then that individual will defend himself by denying the requirement for the change, or will resist the change. This points to the very same dynamic addressed by Festinger, Severin, et. al., in regards to the impact self-esteem has on behavior, especially one's openness to change.

Resistance Theory	
Carr & Littman-Resistance is the result of:	Resistance expressed by:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Not involving workers in the shaping of change ♦ Not involving workers in introducing change ♦ Imposing change from without ♦ Threatening the status quo 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Fear, Resentment, & Non-acceptance of technical merit
Szilagyi & Wallace--Participation in change reduces resistance	Resistance expressed by:
Coch & French--Participation reduces resistance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Agression, Rationalization, Compensation, & Regression ♦ Resignation & Hostility
Lawrence & Lorsch--High emotional change induces resistance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Negative attitudes

Figure 8

⁵⁷Ibid., pp. 644-645.

Also supporting the above findings, the author Peter R. Scholtes in The Team Handbook provides an interesting thought regarding change. He said, "People don't resist change; they resist being changed."⁵⁸ This should ring familiar with many of the statements made by those describing the difficulty of leaving the old, cherished, and comfortable. Scholtes adds you must include people at every step of the planning and implementation process; learn their fears; find out what they hope will happen; and, seek their suggestions. Scholtes believes you have to treat change like you would if you were courting someone for their affection. He recommends you must "'Woo' the people. Listen to them. Be responsive to their concerns."⁵⁹ This seems to be a fundamental for successful change as confirmed by the many researchers' findings. Participation must be a common and expected condition to successfully manage change.

⁵⁸Peter R. Scholtes, The Team Handbook, Joiner Associates Inc., Madison, WI., 1992, p. 1-21.

⁵⁹Ibid., p. 1-24.

CHAPTER IV

SOLVING FOR RESISTANCE

Synthesis of Theories

The motivation, behavior, and resistance theories presented thus far will help one understand the broad range of human actions, but there remains a need to organize this information in a way which could provide a valid and predictive method of viewing behaviors related to organizational change. This next portion will serve that end.

I believe there are commonalities within the theories presented thus far. These commonalties are useful for determining resistance in organizations under going change. Prior to presenting the commonalities of those theories, I will first offer a strategy which allows contextual application. The contextual element is necessary to apply these theories to people in a general sense.

I propose these theories apply to all people, but not equally to all. Not all people are motivated similarly; therefore, there exists motivation theory which attends to people of uncommon motivation. Not all people behave similarly. Therefore, we see variations in behavior theory. Finally, not all people resist the occurrence of change in similar ways. Thus, there must be some reason whereby we can explain these differences.

I believe the answer lies within the McGregor and Herzberg theories. I conclude all people are neither Theory X or Theory Y, nor are all are motivation seekers or hygiene seekers. I believe Maslow gives us the key to understanding this long argued dilemma. There are a wide range of needs by which people are motivated and satisfied. When you analyze McGregor and

Herzberg in the context of Maslow's Hierarchy Model, I propose two distinct personalities emerge. It is only when you abandon the belief that all people are equal in motivations, behavior, value systems, etc., that you can begin to find relevancy in the range of responses by people to changing environments.

I will present what I believe are these two personality types, and then apply the behavioral theories (Dissonance, Self-esteem, Satisfaction, and Transitional) to determine if there are unique and predictive behaviors distinctive to the two personalities. Finally, I will apply the findings of Resistance theory to characterize the existence of, and reasons for, resistance in organizations relative to these two personality types.

Motivation Theory--The LONP and HONP Emerge

I propose that the motivation theories represented by McGregor (Theory X, Theory Y) and Herzberg (Hygiene Seeker, Motivation Seeker) reflect two distinct personality types. This is an important distinction which, when assimilated with the remaining theories, will provide a construct which suggests a unique and comprehensive understanding of the occurrence of resistance in organizations undergoing change.

To begin this discussion, I would like to introduce Maslow's Need Hierarchy as a foundational baseline (see Fig 9.) I chose Maslow's Hierarchy because it has, over time, become an acceptable and credible theory of human motivation. The two personalities which I propose exist can be defined relative to Maslow's Hierarchy. With that distinction made, all other theories can be then

Maslow s Need Hierarchy

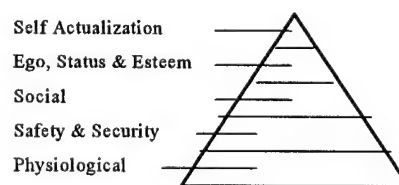


Figure 9

discussed and analyzed as they relate to those two personalities. These two personalities will be labeled Low-order Need Person and High-order Need Person. I chose these labels because they correspond, in a basic sense, with the two personalities.



Figure 10

My proposed Low-order Need Person is an individual who operates at the lower three levels of Maslow's Hierarchy (see Fig 10.) As such, this person is motivated to maintain and protect lower-order needs, focusing on: **Physiological** needs (*general needs*--food, drink, shelter, and pain avoidance;

workplace needs--salary and working conditions), **Safety and Security** needs (*general needs*--freedom from threat, protection from danger and accidents, and the security of the surroundings; *workplace needs*--safe conditions, job security, and fringe benefits regarding health, protection, and retirement needs), and **Social** needs (*general needs*--friendships and satisfying relationships with others; *workplace needs*--acceptance by peers and employee-focused management.)⁶⁰

Motivation Theory Applied to LONP and HONP Personalities

If the existence of this Low-order Need Person (LONP) is to gain credibility, then the LONP personality should be recognizable when compared with the McGregor and Herzberg motivation theories. McGregor's Theory X reference is consistent by describing a similar person in his Theory X reference. He suggests the Theory X person lacks motivation; must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment; avoids responsibility; has little ambition; and above all else, wants security. This fits the LONP, as Maslow's hierarchy suggests this person

would lack the need for "successful attainment or accomplishment of a particular task, and not value recognition by others of [his] skills and abilities to do effective work...."⁶¹ This need only appears when an individual has risen to the **Ego, Status and Esteem** level; a level to which the LONP has not advanced. It would also follow that the LONP wouldn't "seek work assignments that challenge their skills and abilities, ...develop and use creative or innovative approaches, [or] provide for general advancement and personal growth," as these needs reside at the **Self Actualization** level. The LONP remains at or below the **Social** level; therefore, never exhibits behavior representing motivation in an organizational context. By definition, Maslow would also suggest the LONP's behaviors and motivations do not reflect the higher-order needs which are characterized by motivation, responsibility, and a need for ambition or personal achievement. This, too, remains consistent with McGregor' Theory X personality. Another indicator to determine consistency would be a match of the individual operating at the **Safety and Security** level who is controlled by a need for freedom from threats and desires security of his surroundings. This also matches McGregor's Theory X reference which states people must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment and "wants security above all."⁶² That proves a match between the Maslow-based LONP and the McGregor Theory X (see Fig 11).

⁶⁰Ibid., p. 107, and op. cit., L. O. Ruch and T. H. Holmes, pp. 128-129.

⁶¹Ibid., pp. 107-108.

⁶²op.cit., Andrew D. Szilagyi, Jr., and Marc J. Wallace Jr., p. 104.

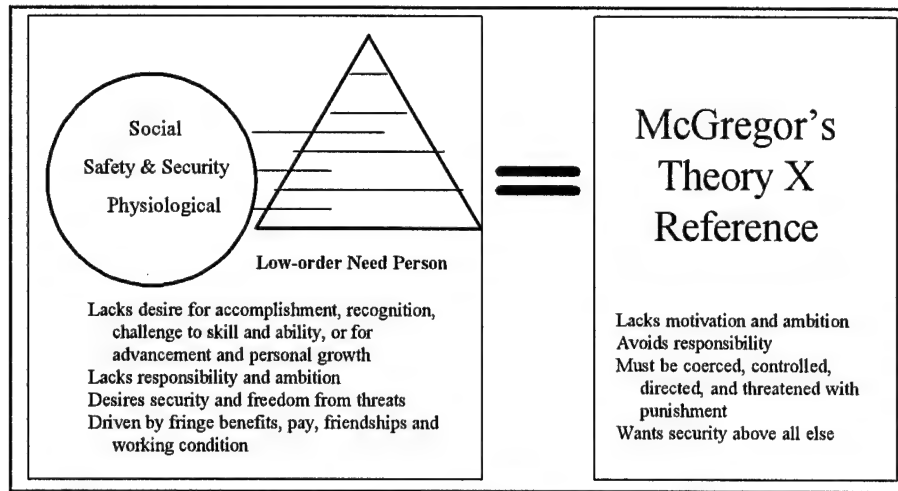


Figure 11

The LONP personality is equally consistent with the Herzberg Hygiene Seeking individual. Herzberg identifies Hygiene seeking individuals as, "very sensitive to work conditions (pay, fringe benefits, status, physical work environment), do the minimum amount of work necessary, and are not easily motivated."⁶³ The Hygiene Seekers value job security, working conditions, quality of supervision, and interpersonal relations. All of these characteristics fit dramatically with the **Physiological, Safety and Security, and Social** need levels of Maslow's Hierarchy. The correlation of the Maslow-based LONP and the Herzberg Hygiene Seeker is equally remarkable to that of the McGregor Theory X. I

believe the LONP deserves credibility for recognition when you evaluate the lower need levels of Maslow's Hierarchy and then compare those with the Theory X Reference from McGregor and the

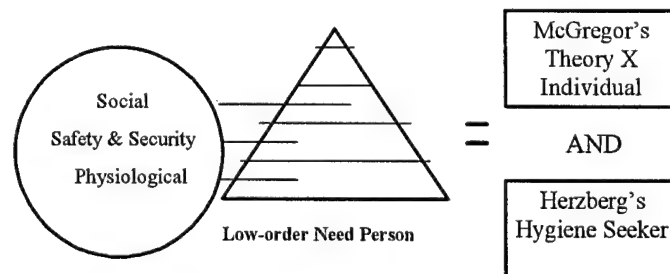


Figure 12

⁶³op. cit., S. E. Stephanou, p. 273.

Hygiene (Dissatisfying Factors) from Herzberg. I believe all of these theories point to a person who has distinctive characteristics. Let us turn to the second personality.

The second personality is one which I will label as the High-order Need Person (HONP). The HONP is an individual who operates at the higher end of Maslow's Hierarchy. For the HONP, I suggest he has found the satisfaction necessary for fulfilling the basic need of the **Physiological, Safety and Security, and Social** levels, and is now motivated to satisfy needs at the **Ego, Status, and Esteem** and **Self-actualization** levels. Maslow's theory explains this dynamic by suggesting people operate at the next higher level of need above that which is satisfied. For example, an individual who has found minimal satisfaction at the **Social** need level will then be "motivated to perform by a desire to satisfy" needs at the next higher level.⁶⁴ As such, we should expect to see an HONP's behavior as comparatively different from that of the LONP. In contrast to the LONP, the HONP should exhibit behaviors descriptive of individuals operating at the higher levels of the Maslow hierarchy.

An individual described as an HONP is one who is said to be operating at the top two levels of Maslow's hierarchy. Let me review attributes of these two need levels. Those first of these two levels is **Ego, Status, and Esteem** and is characterized by motivation which focuses on the need for self-respect, respect from peers for his accomplishments, and a need for self-confidence and prestige. Examples are "attainment or accomplishment of a particular task, recognition by others of the person's skills and abilities to do effective work, and the use of organizational titles (e.g., Manager, Senior Accountant, Director of Nursing)."⁶⁵ The **Self-actualization** need is characterized by a need to maximize one's abilities, skills, and potential.

⁶⁴op.cit., Andrew D. Szilagyi, Jr., and Marc J. Wallace Jr., p. 106.

⁶⁵Ibid., p. 107-108.

These people are the ones who seek the most challenging assignments which "permit them to develop and to use creative or innovative approaches, and provide for general advancement and personal growth."⁶⁶ With this definition completed, we will now look to the McGregor motivation theory for correlation.

Within the context of the McGregor motivation theory there exists a personality similar to the Maslow high-need personality just presented. McGregor suggests the Theory Y reference points to an individual who will exercise self direction and self control to achieve objectives to which they are committed; will commit to objectives as a function of rewards associated with their achievements; will seek responsibility; and will exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity to solve organizational problems. This Theory Y reference appears to have high correlation with an individual said to be operating at the **Ego, Status, and Esteem** and **Self-actualization** need levels given the similarity of behavior. Both the Maslow-based HONP and the Theory Y person appear to be motivated toward responsible behavior in order to earn a certain respect or esteem from others regarding their performance. Both individuals seek very challenging tasks and exercise tremendous creative or innovative approaches. Both behaviors appear to be motivated to actions which provide for personal growth. The HONP appears then to be a close match to the McGregor Theory Y person.

The HONP also relates closely with the Herzberg Motivation Seeking Individual. The characteristics of the Motivation Seeking Individual are descriptive of an individual seeking, achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, personal growth and development, and a qualitative value to their work.

⁶⁶Ibid., p. 108.

The Herzberg characteristics closely match the motivational drive prescribed by the McGregor Theory Y person as well as the Maslow-based HONP, as they all suggest a need for

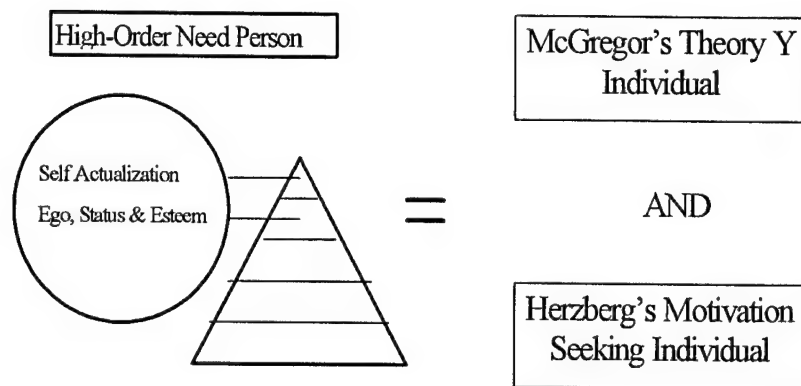


Figure 13

responsible behavior which can provide for growth, achievement, and prestige.

Thus the distillation of the Maslow, McGregor and Herzberg theories results in these two motivationally discrete personalities. These personalities are discrete in terms of the needs which they value and, therefore, the needs which motivate them to action.

Behavior Theory Application

An evaluation of the Dissonance, Self-esteem, Satisfaction, and Transitional behavior theories, relative to the LONP and HONP personalities, could provide insight and identify the dynamics regarding the differences in responses by individuals to similar

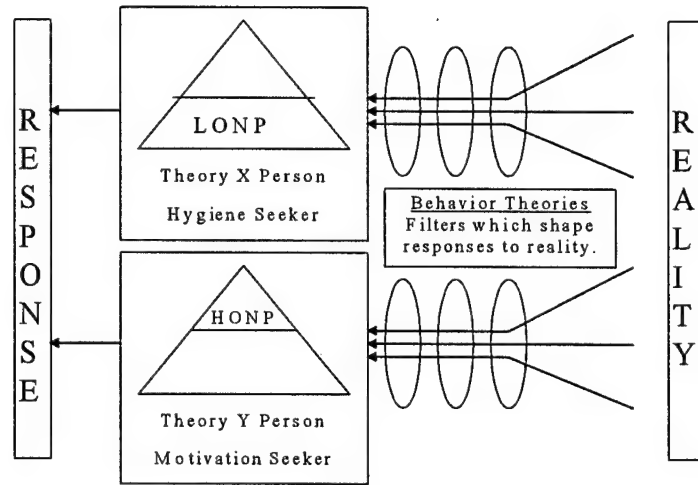


Figure 14

conditions. I propose these behavioral theories are discriminating filters which focus or explain behavioral responses (see Fig 14.) If then, we were to apply these behavioral perscriptors to the two discrete personalities, we should the see equally distinctive responses.

Behavior Theories Applied to the LONP and HONP

The LONP will filter exterior conditions relative to the needs he is motivated to fill. Those are the **Physiological, Safety and Security, and Social** need levels. Remember, according to McGregor and Herzberg, this LONP lacks motivation for the higher order needs; McGregor contends he must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened; avoids responsibility; places security needs above all else; and values job security, salary, working conditions, and interpersonal relations.⁶⁷ Dissonance theory suggests the LONP would view his

⁶⁷It is important to note here that McGregor hasn't concluded that there are people who must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened. He is only describing a prevalent

behavior as appropriate and necessary only to fill those needs; thus, any initiative introduced which would demand change would be filtered for relevancy against these lower order needs. Anything which demands he fulfill a higher-order need would be resisted as not matching his value set. In that same regard, anything which threatens that which he values would be resisted as well. (Resistance may be delayed as the person continues to compensate by adjusting his attitude or behavior to maintain the balance between attitude and behavior. If the dissonance continues to grow there must come a point when the dissonance become so extreme as to require resistance as a blocking or defensive response.) In summary, resistance would occur whenever this person's low-order needs are sufficiently threatened or he was required to perform behaviors which are irrelevant to those needs.

The HONP will also filter exterior conditions relative to the needs he is motivated to fill, as does the LONP. Those are the **Ego, Status and Esteem**, and **Self-actualization** need levels. As such, according to McGregor and Herzberg, the HONP will exercise self-control, and self-direction; set his level of commitment as a function of rewards associated with his achievements; seek responsibility; exercise a high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity to solve organizational problems; desire achievement, recognition, advancement, and development. The HONP's view as filtered by Dissonance theory, would dictate that he would view his behavior as appropriate and necessary as he is able to fill those needs, and therefore, retain the balance

perception by management regarding workers. That is why his Theory X and Theory Y are characterized as references. I believe the point which is implicit in his findings, and proved by the study of behavior theory, is that people have to be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened to perform tasks which threaten a valued need or are irrelevant to a valued need. Since the LONP is operating at the lower end of the need hierarchy, he doesn't view behavior which would fill the higher order needs of recognition, achievement, responsibility, or creative problem solving as relevant. Management naturally sees people who are motivated toward these higher-order needs

between attitude and behavior. Thus, any introduction of a initiative which would place a demand on him regarding change would be filtered for relevancy against his higher-order needs. The HONP has progressed beyond serving only basic, low-level needs. Although their behavior may be externally viewed as altruistic, it remains very much a self-serving need as well, with regard to maintaining the attitude/behavior balance. Within the organization they are perceived as energetic and highly motivated, yet their actions (behavior) support their need to gain recognition, rewards, advancement, etc. Only when there occurs an imbalance or dissonance between their attitude and behavior will resistance occur. That would be expected in a proposed change which clashes with their attitude of self or requires a change in behavior which fails to serve their needs.

The Self-esteem theory offers unique insight to resistance as well. Self-esteem serves as a conditional discriminator to the LONP. The condition is whether the information presented or the actions required of an individual serves to threaten or maintain his positive self-image. The individual will discriminate the input by screening his perceptions or modifying his attitude to preserve that self-image. The LONP will support change which enhances his self-image in the context of that which he sees value (Maslow's Physiological, and Safety and Security, and Social needs). This is because an LONP's attitude will be shaped by how the proposed change contributes to his self-esteem. He will not support that which does not add value to his self-esteem. Therefore, he would be expected to resist any change which does not meet his need level and/or degrades his self-esteem. Yet, any change which enhances self-esteem would increase the LONP's disposition to accept that change.

as much more valuable to their organization, and therefore characterizes the lower-order need people as unmotivated and requiring exceptional inducement to perform similar tasks.

Self-esteem theory serves the HONP as a conditional discriminator also. The HONP will discriminate the input by screening his perceptions or modifying his attitude to preserve that self-image. Just as the LONP, the HONP will support change which enhances his self-image in the context of that which he sees value. As a result, his self-image is a construct of, not only his present behavior (Festinger), but also of what he aspires to become (re: Herzberg's Motivation Seeker.) Because of the HONP's greater motivational range as compared to the LONP, his perceptions and attitudes will screen a greater breadth of information. This must be so, since his self-image is constructed from a greater range of need. Given that, the HONP will compare much more information against his perception of self and internal desire to maintain the entire spectrum of need. Therefore, he will be prone to resist a greater range of input. The HONP must find consistency with inputs the LONP filters out as irrelevant.

Satisfaction theory suggests that the LONP will evaluate proposed change against his self-image which is built on the equation of performance leading to satisfaction. The LONP will remain satisfied if the change substantiates his concept of his own performance. The strong performer will be more likely to resist change which requires him to alter behavior he otherwise views as strong.

Similarly to the LONP, Satisfaction theory suggests the HONP will evaluate proposed change against his self-image which is built on the equation of performance leading to satisfaction. Equally, the HONP will remain satisfied if the change substantiates his concept of his own performance. Because the HONP's self-image stems from a much greater range of need, he responds with a more motivated performance level. That creates a self-image with greater depth regarding his value to the organization. If the performance level is greater (and his need drives him to that) then, if his satisfaction is to remain in balance, the HONP would require greater

rewards. The end result is the HONP is much more sensitive to those changes proposed which affect his need level of recognition, responsibility, advancement, etc. It would follow that the HONP could easily be the source of the greatest resistance, given the depth of his self-image.

Transitional Theory applies equally to the LONP and HONP. Bridges suggests any individual must reach psychological closure with the old state prior to transitioning to the new state required by any suggested change. This process of letting go of the old state is described by Bridges as the grieving process. If you evaluate this process in the context of need theory, then you can draw some important conclusions. The choice to support the new state would be intuitive if one were presented with proposed change which would, if accepted, extinguish a previous situation which didn't fill a need; removed a threat to one's need, self-esteem or satisfaction; filled an unfulfilled need; or enhanced one's self-esteem or satisfaction. Support would be expected, as would the lack of grieving. This theory becomes dynamic when there are trade-offs to be considered. If the net gain falls on the side of change then support would be for change. In that case, there would exist some grieving for the status quo being rejected, as the rejection of the old would mean giving up what was once acceptable and valuable. However, if the evaluation of the proposed change results in a net loss, then, as expected, there would be resistance. The level of resistance would be proportional to what the individual is leaving behind, or the sum of the loss. Because the LONP's need levels are more restricted than the HONP, his decision to leave the past for the proposed future would receive consideration relative only to the LONP's lower-order needs. The difference for the HONP would be relative to the range of need he values. This difference would suggest there would exist a much greater range from which the HONP could attach grief and therefore resistance.

Bridges theory applies similarly to the dynamic found in studies which proved building one's self-esteem lessens their resistance to change. In fact it makes them more amenable to change. That is why, when one is leaving the old task (e.g., typewriter) and is in transition to the new task (word process or computer,) building their self-esteem encourages attachment to the new state. This same dynamic occurs when one is attempting to engage change from an individual in a situation where risk exists--this could be construed as a transition process which carries greater incidence and probability for resistance. Examples of this type of situation include convincing a child to ride a two-wheeled bicycle for the first time; convincing a new recruit at an obstacle course (now called a confidence course) to traverse a narrow beam high above the ground; or suggesting an employee do any task which significantly taxes their ability. The single common denominator for reducing the resistance and increasing their motivation to act is to provide massive doses of encouragement in ways which build their self-esteem.

Resistance Theory Applied to the LONP and HONP

Resistance theory applies equally to the LONP and HONP personalities. Resistance theory suggests people were more likely to adopt change if they were involved in the shaping and

Resistance Theory	
Carr & Littman-Resistance is the result of: <ul style="list-style-type: none">♦ Not involving workers in the shaping of change♦ Not involving workers in introducing change♦ Imposing change from without♦ Threatening the status quo	Resistance expressed by: <ul style="list-style-type: none">♦ Fear, Resentment, & Non-acceptance of technical merit
Szilagyi & Wallace--Participation in change reduces resistance	Resistance expressed by: <ul style="list-style-type: none">♦ Agression, Rationalization, Compensation, & Regression
Coch & French--Participation reduces resistance	♦ Resignation & Hostility
Lawrence & Lorsch--High emotional change induces resistance	♦ Negative attitudes

Figure 15

introduction of that change to the organization. They add management must be sincere in involving people in the change process and must ensure their people have the ability and freedom to contribute in meaningful ways. Additionally, any threat to the status quo may be met with resistance. The researchers Szilagyi & Wallace and Coch & French also concluded that participation in the change process reduces resistance. The author Scholtes also confirmed these conclusions. I believe the application of resistance theory to the LONP and HONP personalities are appropriate and equal to both. Although the LONP and HONP are motivated by different needs, they both have great interest in preserving their ability to satisfy those needs. It becomes a matter of preserving their interests. The best method for an individual to feel comfortable knowing their interests are being represented is to participate in the change process. I would also suggest that not involving people in the decision process produces a two-fold dilemma. Not only will someone fear that his interests will not be represented, the very nature of excluding him from

the process damages his self-esteem. Any resulting loss to self-esteem reduces a person's acceptance for change, and, as Festinger offered, dramatically increases his inclination for resistance in ways ranging to the extreme of aberrant behavior.

Chapter Summary

Much has just been presented but the important keys regarding motivation and behavior are few. The LONP and HONP will each filter conditions against the needs they value. They have distinctly different needs; therefore, their motivation and behavior will be different. Yet in regards to that which they value they will each demonstrate similar behavior and attitudes. They will each fervently attempt to preserve opportunities to achieve valued needs (relevant needs.) Likewise, they will each discount requirements to perform actions which fail to fulfill valued needs (irrelevant needs.) Both measure the appropriateness and necessity for behavior as it fulfills needs. Self-esteems and one's concept of their performance are significant to both personalities. Change which damages self-esteem or suggests poor performance will likely be resisted. Both personalities will weigh the suggested new state against the old state to determine net gain or loss. Resistance is a function of that gain or loss--and self-esteem is quite important here as well. Finally, both personalities have dramatic resiliency to change when they have an integral role in the planning and execution of change (this points back to having the opportunity to preserve valued needs and self-esteem.)

The next part of this paper will serve to take these keys and describe methods to manage change in ways to reduce resistance.

CHAPTER V

MANAGING RESISTANCE

After examining all the theories, a plausible deduction from the preceding analysis is that two personalities exist. The LONP and HONP emerged from the sum of the motivation theories and were shown to be distinct personalities, each motivated by different reasons, to fill different needs. Each of these needs were shown to be of significant value to their personality type. Likewise, each personality found value and were motivated to seek or fill these needs. A motivating need was shown to be an important need, irrespective of its position in the hierarchy (i.e., a lower-order need is not a less important, neither is a higher-order need a more valued need. A valued need is equally important no matter what level it resides in Maslow's Hierarchy.) The commonality between the LONP and HONP was their motivation to fill the needs appropriate to their personality. Both personalities found this motivation to be critically important, and is observable in terms of their behavior.

In contrast, another commonality appeared which explained why they were different. Although each personality shares common motivation to fulfill needs, because their needs are different, their behavior can be expected to be different, and sometimes remarkably so, given the same situation. Fundamentally, people will resist change which threatens needs they value; and people will tend to resist or be ambivalent towards those changes which they believe are irrelevant to serving their needs. This explains the differences in behavior by people confronted with similar situations. This example is best represented by the divergent needs of the LONP and HONP.

The LONP will lack motivation to support any proposed change if the only outcome of his support is need satisfaction at the Ego, Status and Esteem or the Self-actualization level. The LONP isn't motivated to fill needs at this level, and therefore, could be expected to resist change which could only serve those needs. This same situation would become more dynamic if the requirement to support a non-need filling, proposed change were augmented by additional conditions. If the change required the LONP to support the irrelevant need as a condition of continued employment, then he would have to weigh the value of pursuing an irrelevant need in order to maintain a need he is highly motivated to maintain. This would require a balancing act much like that described in Festinger's Dissonance Theory, whereby he would have to weigh the factors and react to the level of dissonance the options provide.

Regarding organization management, there are some interesting considerations for the LONP. The LONP is not motivated at the higher levels of Maslow's Hierarchy. They are not motivated to: pursue recognition, responsibility, or prestige; seek assignments which challenge their skills or abilities; desire growth, achievement, or advancement. Therefore, they will not support change which addresses only these irrelevant needs. That should be instructive for management when considering tasking personnel. You certainly wouldn't want to task an LONP to develop the company enrichment program to identify those in the company who exhibit extraordinary achievement. An LONP isn't in tune with those needs. Likewise, an LONP wouldn't be the right person to head a creative structure like new-product development. Not only would they probably resist such a change, they would most likely fail at the task. As has been stated many times, resistance would be expected when one's needs are threatened, or one is required to perform tasks which are irrelevant to their needs.

The HONP is more evolved than the LONP in their motivation growth so the considerations by management must be different, as well. Because LONPs operate at the highest of Maslow's Hierarchy, they are much more likely to find relevance with those needs the LONP does not. However, by this same respect, the HONP is not motivated by, those needs to which the LONP ascribes great value. Although the HONP may have once been motivated by those lower-order needs, he has now found sufficient satisfaction of those needs to no longer be motivated in the same regard as one who has yet found similar satisfaction. Given his need level, the HONP may be the right person to lead a creative R&D effort, or work countless hours on demanding tasks to gain recognition. Conversely, he would most likely lack the sensitivity necessary to analyze production line working conditions or be in charge of the company picnic. Since he isn't motivated by the LONP needs, his awareness isn't as acute as someone who places great value on those same needs. In fact, he might very well resist such a change given the behavior requested by such a change wouldn't serve his needs. Like the LONP, the HONP could be expected to resist change which threatens his needs.

Conclusions from Behavior and Resistance Theories

The conclusions of the behavior and resistance theorists provides some useful direction which applies equally to the LONP and HONP. Although change is in itself stressful, there are a number of principles which management must consider when planning change. The bulk of the noted experts, (Festinger, Severin, Hamner and Organ, Szilaygi and Wallace, and Roethlisberger and Dickson) all confirm the importance self-esteem plays in a person's openness to change. They find if you damage self-esteem, you increase the resistance to change. Directed change is shown

to impact negatively on self-esteem. Directed change is a threat to the status quo. Any threat to status quo directly places need fulfillment at risk.

Participation significantly reduces or eliminates resistance. Participation in the decision process would appear to solve many of the causal factors for resistance to change. If the people are involved in the planning and implementation of change, then:

The very nature of their inclusion in the process can enhance their self-esteem. Management must communicate that their role in the change process is to ensure any recommendations offered for approval meet the legitimate needs of the organization and its members.

Directed change will be effectively eliminated. Any change considered or approved will be change which has already been developed by those affected by the change. Many times directed change carries with it unknown yet suspected hidden agendas. With a participative change process, the question of hidden motives is resolved.

The threat to status quo is minimized. By participating in the change process the legitimate reasons for change can be expressed and restrictions placed on the new end state (e.g., time, manpower, cost, etc.) With the ground rules understood there is less suspicion of hidden motives regarding the change. Also, any possible threat to status quo can be minimized within the restrictions required of possible solutions. Naturally, there will be times when the change state is one which is absolutely necessary for the company, yet will result in significant loss to some within the organization. In cases like these, the net effect of the change may be a significant loss to some; but still, given the option, people may rather

participate in decisions affecting their future than rely that future to what may be considered a disinterested party.

Participation allows consideration of the needs valued by those affected by the change. If it is only the stuffed shirts, or top brass that evaluates and approves change, then they, by the nature of their own achievement which brought them to those positions, may not be able to appropriately consider LONP needs or impact. What may seem appropriate to them may be very threatening to the line workers.

Directed change is a significant determinant for resistance. Directed change was previously shown to be damaging to one's self-esteem. This applies equally to the LONP and HONP. By allowing people to participate in the change process you reduce resistance. Allowing people to participate in the change process doesn't necessarily prevent resistance. An example used earlier in this paper described an individual who suggests changing his secretary's work environment to increase her productivity. This could be construed as directed change. Even if the supervisor added a measure of participation to this example resistance would exist. If he suggested that his secretary lacked efficiency and she could participate in proposing measures to solve this deficiency, his secretary might still experience damage to her self-esteem and threat to her status quo. (The gender of the secretary was selected only to be specific when discussing this example.)

In this example, the supervisor is suggesting his secretary's behavior is deficient and the correcting the environment is the solution. As so many researchers have already reported, any suggestion that one's behavior is deficient, causes dissonance, resistance, damage to self-esteem, threat to status quo, etc. In this case the secretary may not have believed change was appropriate. Any effort by the manager to identify the necessary change, even with her participation, misses a

key element in the change process. The point here is that the manager must sell the problem and not the solution. In that regard the first task for the manager is to help the secretary come to the conclusion that change is something she desires. Bridges pointed to this same dynamic when he talked about reaching psychological closure with the old condition as a necessary condition prior to attaching ownership of the new state.

The requirement for management is to help the employee come to the conclusion that the old state is no longer appropriate. Again, the focus must be on the problem, without damaging the individual's self-esteem. In that regard, the supervisor could ask the secretary what is there about her job, that if she were able to change it, would create a better environment for her to work in and help her with her work. Right away, the focus would be on her welfare and not on her performance. Supposing she is an LONP, she should readily support this discussion as an opportunity to fill a natural motivation for improving her working conditions, while at the same time could agree on changes which improve the efficiency. Recall, Scholtes describing that people aren't resistant to change, they resist being changed. The manager must convince the secretary that she wants to change. If the proposed end state includes need fulfillment which she values, she would be more likely to accept the change without resistance.

This same example highlights another technique which reduces resistance. As found in the Hawthorne Electric Study, anything you do to build up an individual's self-esteem reduces their resistance to change. This dynamic may be occurring with the secretary in the above paragraph. If the discussion began with comments describing your perception of her job performance in a positive manner; and you then indicated you wanted to reward her by helping her solve any problems which restrict her from being able to do her job, she might be very open to continued discussion without exhibiting defensive behavior. An approach like this should place the secretary

at ease and allow for an open, non-defensive exchange. If the supervisor's communication enhances the secretary's self-esteem, she will be much more open to change.

Another thought by Scholtes proves instructive here. He intimated, if you want someone to leave the comfortable, then there must be some comfort in the proposed new state. He also is the one who said you must 'woo' people to change. This is also quite important for the supervisor to understand. Those who are asked to change must also attach value to the change. As Bridges, Festinger, et. al., would describe the process to achieve change: people who have come to terms with their actions (most have) must be presented with a proposed state of sufficient attractiveness to motivate them to detach from the old and attach to the new.

Certainly, not all change has positive consequence, even with the best of intentions. There will be times and reasons which dictate significant negative consequence for people. Even in such circumstances it may be possible to reduce resistance. Participation can, in these instances, be equally effective to gaining the support of people even when the agreed new state is not popular or comfortable. When the new state is the best choice available, that in great respect, serves to lessen the resistance. During the manufacturing plant reductions of the last decade, many work forces voted for reduced wages to regain market competitiveness. This seemingly unattractive alternative was better than being without work. In this case, you can see the motivational quality of the need for job security serving as the driving force. In situations where the consequences are so grave it may be more important to sell the problem to the workforce and allow the solution to be a joint effort within whatever constraints are appropriate. People are more likely to legitimately own the change and feel less like victims of some uncaring force when they can participate in the outcome.

Today, change is common and expected. With change comes resistance. Yet, there is much one can do to reduce resistance. Understanding there are remarkable differences between the LONP and HONP is the beginning of that effort. The LONP and HONP are motivated in different regards. They balance their behavior and attitudes as a function of their needs. It follows then that they respond differently to conditions requiring similar behaviors. They will resist change which threatens their distinct needs. They will also resist or be ambivalent to change which does not serve a valued need. That explains why some people are very resistant to change while others accept it without exception. Understanding the motivation of LONP and HONP provide management with important insight regarding their behavior. That understanding highlights the very nature of their motivational drive and is indicative of their potential contribution to the organization and what they may be inclined to resist.⁶⁸

Understanding the reasons for resistance common to the LONP and HONP provide the second area of significant insight. In that regard, it was shown management must allow people to participate in change and also be extremely sensitive to maintaining the self-esteem of their employees. That can be done by selling the problem and not the solution, wooing people to change, and communicating the necessity for change.

We know why people resist change. Managing change with a focus on those techniques which reduce resistance will allow an organization to effectively and efficiently achieve change.

⁶⁸The LONP may be the best person on the assembly line but does not value responsibility, nor does he have ambition for achievement; therefore, he may not be the right choice to guide toward tasks which require someone operating at the higher-need levels.

SUMMARY

Thus, the whole of this paper should bring about a common conclusion. Continuous change has become an expected norm in quality organizations; historically, change has been difficult for individuals and organizations to smoothly negotiate; resistance to change is a significant barrier to organizations attempting change; change is itself stressful; and, when a person's self-esteem is damaged, they will resist change. The importance of this subject should be manifest as change becomes more necessary and occurs with greater frequency. Barriers to change diminish an organization's ability to respond to a dynamic and changing environment. Understanding why resistance to change exists is an important first step toward reducing that barrier.

It's not that people aren't motivated, people are motivated for different reasons. Understanding their motivations is necessary to successfully manage change. The manager who effectively manages change will be the manager who is most valuable to his organization. Resistance to change is one barrier that saps the competitive lifeblood from an organization. An organization which cannot continuously change is an organization with a short lifespan.

An organization which understands employee motivation and the reasons for resistance to change can act to create an environment where change is accepted and valued.

AFTERWARD

Having come this far in this research, there still remain many questions regarding the dynamics of human motivation, behavior, and resistance to change. Quite honestly, I must admit this has certainly not been a scientifically valid study. However, I do believe it is relevant. It is relevant because it remains consistent with all the previous study of motivation, behavior, and resistance. I also believe this research represents a synthesis of motivation theory in a way which hasn't been expressed previously and is valuable for defining behavior. In a way I believe I've only scratched the surface; yet I've accomplished what I set out to do.

This study could continue in the area of providing greater definition for managing change. Scientific method could be employed to validate my conclusions. Although I believe the two-personality model offered is sound deductive reasoning, it lacks the weight of evidence to be overwhelmingly conclusive.

I have received fairly wide-spread approval of these conclusions when discussing them with colleagues and representatives from the business sector. It may be that much of what I claim is intuitive but it appears to have merit in application as well. Some who are experiencing or have experienced dramatic change report they discovered similar conclusions in part as they worked through instituting change.

To continue this research, I think a good next step would be to include detailed case studies which evaluate an organization's institution of change, their techniques and resistance resident in those cases. This is fertile ground and there is remarkably little contemporary study

with similar focus. Although there is much which could be continued, I must bring this effort to a close.

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